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Khalida Bukhari

BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE

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BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE

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Biological Science Curriculum Study



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PART 1 UNITY

The earth is populated by millions of different types of living creatures. Each has its own way of living, but all share *the only known kind* of structural and chemical organization that means *being alive*. Whatever their dissimilarities, plants, animals, and other creatures solve their big problems — the problem of being alive — in much the same way. The study of these unifying features will be one theme of Part 1. We will also learn how biologists acquire knowledge of living creatures.

CHAPTER 1 Biology — What Is It About? 1

Biology is the sum of man's knowledge about life — his own life and that of all other creatures. This knowledge consists not only of a collection of facts, but more importantly, of the way these facts are associated and interpreted in general theories. An example of a biological investigation is the theme of this chapter. The cause of mankind's most serious disease, malaria, is used as a case history in showing how man attempts to answer his biological questions.

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Less than a century ago scientists debated furiously the question of whether life could arise spontaneously from nonliving substances. The far-reaching implications of this biological question are not necessarily the same for life today and life in its most distant past. But they *are* the same for all kinds of living things, as investigation of this biological problem in terms of life today has abundantly illustrated.

CHAPTER 3 Basic Structure 38

Unifying theories relate isolated facts. Science is at its best when it seeks a new theory to organize an accumulation of poorly understood facts. One of the greatest unifying theories of biology is that all, or nearly all, forms of life have a common basic structure. That this is true is not at all obvious: a fish and a tree really do not seem to resemble one another. Yet both are alike in being composed of cells. Cells were first discovered almost 200 years before their nature was understood well enough to lead to the cell theory.

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Basic Functions

If nearly all forms of life have a common basic structure—cells—do they also have common functions? Does life as a fish have anything in common with life as a bird? This biological question is closely connected with the history of chemistry—especially the argument that life can be understood in terms of the same general laws that govern all matter.

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Living Chemistry

Even though all forms of life—all living organisms—exist in full conformity with the patterns that we recognize as the laws of chemistry and physics, the patterns of life involve complex chemistry and complex physics. Living organisms are composed of atoms that are common in the nonliving world, but these atoms are much more complexly organized than in nonliving matter. Only in living structures are atoms found organized into large molecules of nucleic acids, proteins, carbohydrates, and fats. The cells of all creatures are composed chiefly of these same classes of chemical substances.

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The Physiology of Cells

A living cell, with its huge number of complex substances, exhibits ceaseless chemical activity. Substances are entering and leaving the cell at all times, as molecules are built up and broken down within the cell. Transfers of energy for all the cell's activities are occurring constantly. These ceaseless processes of chemical and energy change are

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Reproduction—of Cells—of Individuals

The most basic characteristic of life is reproduction; that is, the production of new structures and individuals similar to the existing structures and individuals. Reproduction occurs at different levels of organization. Parts of the cell, such as the chromosomes, produce new chromosomes. Cells then produce new cells; and individuals, offspring. In this chapter, reproduction by cells and by individuals is discussed in terms of a fundamental feature—the replication and distribution of chromosomes in mitosis and meiosis.

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The Hereditary Materials

The physical basis of genetic continuity can be traced from cell to nucleus to chromosomes. In this chapter you will list the requirements for a hereditary material, then begin to look for molecules that fulfill these requirements. The observations and experiments that led to the belief that DNA is the hereditary material are used as an inquiry into scientific procedures. Finally, the manner in which the hereditary instructions of DNA relate to specific proteins of the cell is described.

ART 2 DIVERSITY

Diversity among the earth's microorganisms, plants, and animals is more obvious in many ways than the fundamental unity in life. Historically, diversity emerged as modifications upon a common theme. Unity continues to be shown in the recognition that different organisms are similar chemically, have a common structural basis in cells, reproduce, evolve, respond to stimuli, and constitute parts of an interrelated whole. Yet diversity in life is seen in the millions of different types of living organisms—the three principal groups being microorganisms, plants, and animals. This section of the book will be concerned with the many variations upon the fundamental theme.

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Several billion years ago the earth was vastly different from what it is today. The primeval seas may have become rich mixtures of organic molecules. Probably a chance combination of molecules produced a larger molecule (possibly similar to the DNA of today) that had a chemical structure giving it a pattern for exact duplication. Slowly, the duplicating molecules became parts of more complex systems, until they could be called "organisms." From these humble beginnings life spread over the earth and evolved into its innumerable species—each an experiment in living in a particular way. The viruses of today may represent a level of complexity similar to that of some of the earliest forms of life. They cannot live independently but require a living cell for their life and reproduction. This may be analogous to the requirements of the hypothetical first organisms for an environment rich in organic compounds.

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The bacteria, more complex than the viruses, are the simplest organisms that can be called cells. They also are the smallest organisms that can be studied with the compound microscope. Their activities are basically those of every living organism. Life in the simplest cells can be very complex—even to reproduction by sexual means.

CHAPTER 11 Small Organisms of Great Importance 214

Because of their small size, bacteria were discovered only after the invention of the microscope. Their importance became rapidly recognized, for they are organisms that cause spoilage, decay, and disease, but that have many useful activities. The discovery that bacteria cause disease is one of the most interesting examples of the methods of science. Bacteria are beneficial in industry, food preparation, and vitamin production, mostly because of their ability to carry on fermentations that result in valuable byproducts.

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Collectively known as fungi, the molds, yeasts, and mushrooms are more than 100,000 species of organisms that are distinct from bacteria. They represent distinctive lines in the evolution of organisms that are dependent ultimately upon the products of photosynthesis. They, like the animals, are dependent ultimately upon the products of photosynthesis. Together with the bacteria they are the chief decomposers—they break down the remains of dead animals and plants and release substances that are used by the living. In decomposition activities, fungi may do great damage to timber, stored food, and products. In another role, as producers of plant diseases, they have affected the production of the world's population.

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The Trend Toward Complexity

The most successful line of plant evolution gave rise to the green plants. The simplest are the green algae. From their origin in the sea, green algae provided the basis for the evolution of the green land plants. Although this happened long ago, the evolutionary sequence is plainly seen by the study of present-day algae.

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The Land Turns Green

More than 400 million years ago, some species of green algae evolved into plants that could live on land. Until then, the land had been barren and lifeless. Slowly the earth was covered with a mantle of green—the life-supporting green of photosynthetic organisms. Special structures and processes, primarily for obtaining water, carbon dioxide, and nitrogen—needed for preventing subsequent loss of water—became necessary for life on land. The liverworts and mosses of today are reminders of some of the early stages in the evolution of green land plants.

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Life is the child of light. Green plants capture the energy of sunlight and use it to synthesize energy-rich compounds. These compounds are the sole source of energy for all other organisms. The essential substance in green plants that makes photosynthesis possible is chlorophyll, which in most land plants is concentrated in leaves. In the leaves, H_2O and CO_2 are used in the manufacture of sugars and amino acids.

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Stems and roots support the leaves in elevated positions in which maximum light is received. The water used in photosynthesis is absorbed by roots and transported to the leaves.

through the tissues of the roots and the stem. The rapid movement of materials and the support of leaves are aided by the complex conducting systems that have evolved in the vascular plants.

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The pinnacle of evolutionary development of the green plants is the large group characterized by flowers. Most of the familiar plants of the world are flower-producing species. It is this group that provides, directly or indirectly, for nearly all of man's needs—his food, his shelter, and most of his clothes and fuels.

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Green plants are producers; animals are consumers. Given a proper temperature and the necessary inorganic substances, green plants can live wherever there is light. Animals can live only where there are green plants or products derived from green plants. This basic dependence defines the boundaries of the world of animals. The animal way of life—whether of a single-celled organism such as *Amoeba* or of large and complex animals—makes a series of demands on the world of life. These demands can be understood from the study of one kind of animal and its dependence upon other organisms and upon the nonliving environment.

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There are probably two million species of animals living today. Fundamentally, all live the same way, but in detail they vary tremendously. The many animal species can be classified into major groups known as phyla. Ten of these phyla include at least 98 percent of all known animals. The known history of animals begins more than a half billion years ago, when all their ancestors lived in water. Much later, some of the animals evolved modifications permitting them to colonize the land.

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In animals that have many cells, some degree of specialization, or division of labor, occurs among the cells. Some of the cells may be specialized in capturing food, others in digesting it, still others in coordinating these activities and additional ones. Digestion is carried out in a simple sac (in *Hydra*) or a complex sac (in planarians), a simple tube (in some worms) or a complex tube (in grasshoppers and many other animals, including man). This chapter is a study of one essential aspect of this division of labor—the enzyme-controlled breakdown of food substances.

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Transportation Within Multicellular Animals

Multicellular animals require a mechanism for transporting materials throughout the body. Sometimes simple diffusion will suffice, as in *Hydra*, but diffusion can supply the needs of only very small bodies. Animals of larger size and complexity have transport systems. How these systems are constructed and how they function is the subject of this chapter.

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Respiration In Multicellular Animals

In animal cells, carbon dioxide is a major product of energy-liberating reactions. Oxygen is often required in these reactions. Respiration involves the exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide by the animal with its environment, as well as energy-liberating reactions within the cells.

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Excretion and Homeostasis in Multicellular Animals

Excretion is the removal from the body of chemical substances present in excess. In addition to water and carbon dioxide, major waste products in animals include one or more nitrogen compounds such as urea. Respiratory processes eliminate carbon dioxide, and nitrogen-containing wastes in larger animals usually are removed by specialized excretory organs such as kidneys. Heat released in metabolism also poses a problem, and homeostatic mechanisms may regulate body temperature, apart from the mechanisms that regulate body chemical makeup.

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Coordination in Multicellular Animals

Multicellular animals, with their many types of specialized cells, have special mechanisms for coordinating the activities of all the parts. Coordination is brought about in two ways: control by nerves and control by chemical substances known as hormones. Information and "orders" are carried from one part of the body to another by both the nervous system and the hormones.

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Animal Support and Locomotion

One of the most obvious characteristics of the animal way of life is movement. Single-celled animals may move by cilia, flagella, or by a flowing motion of the cell itself. More complex animals move by means of tentacles, wings, feet, fins, and sometimes even cilia. In many instances the movement is dependent upon the contraction of muscles. The contraction made possible by special chemical reactions and the energy of ATP. In the more complex animals, body movement usually involves supporting structures of the body—a skeleton on the inside, as in man, or on the outside, as in the insects.

Reproduction in Animals

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Reproduction is a prime attribute of life. It may be asexual, as when a single-celled animal divides into two, or it may be sexual, involving the production and union of an egg and a sperm. Sexual reproduction—so widespread in the living world that we must assume it to be the most successful type so far evolved—provides for great variety in the hereditary makeup of organisms. The reproduction of most animals, including man, is sexual.

The Development of Animals

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In sexual reproduction, the union of a sperm and an egg produces a fertilized egg. The fertilized egg is only a single cell and, hence, is vastly different from the multicellular adult. The events that occur during the gradual growth and change from fertilized egg to adult are known as development. Basically, development consists of an increase in the number of cells, the differentiation of cells into different types, growth, and the organization of cells into the structures of the adult.

The Analysis of Development

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For centuries man has speculated on the underlying factors that control development. How can the fertilized egg, itself a single cell, develop into a complex adult with its many forms of cells, tissues, and organs? One hypothesis was that the adult body was preformed in miniature in the sperm or in the egg. When microscopes were available, it was possible to make the observation that disproved this hypothesis. Biologists of today believe that the complexity of the adult is a slow development from the simplicity of the embryo, and they are performing experiments to learn how this comes about.

ART 3 CONTINUITY

Organisms of today are the passing manifestations of a lineage of life that extends back in time for several billion years. Individuals die, but life continues in their offspring. Two aspects of the continuity of life by reproduction must be considered. First is the short-term continuity based on transmission of hereditary instructions from one generation to the next. Second is long-term continuity—evolution—based on mutation, recombination of alleles, and changes in frequency of alleles because of natural selection.

Patterns of Heredity

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A fertilized egg is always of insignificant dimensions when compared with the adult it will form. Yet this single cell contains all the information necessary for its development into

a full-grown organism. Heredity is the process by which this information is passed from one generation to another, in exact and predictable ways, as set forth in the laws discovered by Gregor Mendel, and by others in the century since Mendel's work.

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The Chromosome Theory of Heredity

The exact and predictable nature of inheritance suggests that it has a physical basis. During the first quarter of the twentieth century, biologists discovered that the basis: the information of inheritance is carried by genes, which are parts of chromosomes. The arrangement and distribution of chromosomes during the formation of sperm and eggs, and the particular combinations of chromosomes that occur at fertilization, determine the pattern of heredity. As a part of this pattern, there is even a basis for the location of genes located on the same chromosome. Specificity of hereditary information appears to be due to a specific sequence of nucleotides in the DNA of the chromosome.

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Darwinian Evolution

More than a century ago, Charles Darwin announced his hypothesis of evolution, one of the most profound intellectual insights of all time. He offered a rational explanation for the innumerable different species that live on the earth, and for the changes that occur in them with the passage of time. The fossil evidence of life long ago, and the evidence derived from the study of life today, have substantiated the correctness of Darwin's hypothesis, which has become a major part of the theory of evolution.

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The Mechanisms of Evolution

In Darwin's time the available biological data were not sufficient to prove the correctness of the hypothesis of evolution. More than half a century later, the careful study of heredity did provide the necessary theoretical basis. We now understand the basis of hereditary differences among organisms. From among genetically different individuals, those whose inherited characteristics best fit them to their environment are selected; that is, the "better" gene combinations survive in the succeeding generations, whereas the "inferior" gene combinations do not. Isolation—in terms of geographical barriers to mixing, and gradually emerging genetic barriers to interbreeding—helps in the separation of closely related populations into new species.

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The Evolution of Man

The biological processes that affect all other life affect mankind as well. Man has evolved—and has done so at a spectacular rate unequalled elsewhere in the world. Within the last two million years he has reached the stage at which he could be called "man" in the full sense of the term. Since then he has passed through a long cultural evolution, as he slowly learned to use tools and fire and to communicate with his fellow

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The Cultural Evolution

In the last 25,000 years, man has developed a new way of life. He has developed a culture, a way of life, a biological process, and cities and developed a mind and hands necessary to provide the

PART 4 INTERACT

all levels of biological organization, from the simplest to the last of these. No individual is free of the influence of interactions with other individuals, with other species, and with the entirety of the environment.

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Animal Behavior

Organisms are influenced by the presence of other organisms, by dependence on other organisms, and by the entire pattern of the environment.

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Checks and Balances

All organisms are influenced by the presence of other organisms, by dependence on other organisms, and by the entire pattern of the environment.

APPENDIX

CHAPTER

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A World of Life

Plants, animals, and microorganisms make up the living world. In the shape of the land, the sea, and the air, a different

In the last 25,000 years man has changed little in his structure, but tremendously in his way of life. He has domesticated plants and animals and has solved, in increasingly better ways, a biological problem that he cannot escape—the need for food. He has built towns and cities and developed the science and technology that is the basis of civilization. His mind and hands have produced science, art, and literature. He has the information necessary to provide the individuals of his species with a secure and rewarding life.

PART 4 INTERACTION

At all levels of biological organization there is unity, diversity, continuity, and interaction. We turn now to the last of these. No individual is complete in itself. Its behavior, and life itself, is a consequence of interactions with other individuals of the same species, with the individuals of different species, and with the entirety of the living and nonliving environments.

Organisms are constantly active, responding to processes within themselves, to the presence of other organisms, and to the nonliving environment. Such activities and interdependence among organisms are particularly obvious in animals. Biologists analyze the entire pattern of animal activities in the study of animal behavior.

All organisms are the products of their genetic makeup and their environments. Under the influence of the environment, evolution occurs, for the environment selects organisms genetically best suited to survive in certain habitats. In each habitat, green plants are the primary producers, and other forms of life are the consumers. The stockpile of materials in dead organisms is decomposed and returned to living circulation by bacteria, fungi, and other decomposers. All organisms on earth are part of a great cycle that ultimately depends on the energy of sunlight.

Plants, animals, and microorganisms, together with the environments in which they live, make up interdependent units or ecosystems. An ecosystem may be in the open ocean or in the shallow sea along the shore. On land it may be in a forest, or on mountains, grasslands, tundra, or desert. Each of these, because of physical and biological factors, supports a different set of living things.

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Mankind: a Population out of Balance

Among the biological problems that man cannot escape is his own effect on the environment. Primitive man generally lived in balance with nature. He was an integral part of the biological community. Civilized man, especially in recent centuries, has approached nature with an arrogance that could be his own undoing. He has destroyed vast areas of land, depleted soil by poor agricultural practices; he has devastated forests, only to find his resources diminishing and his soil supply eroding; he has fouled rivers and streams, thus making their water unsuitable to his needs. But today he is beginning to behave as if he were a living creature who depends on other life for his existence.

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A Perspective of Time and Life – Molecules to Man

Man and all other living species are products of the past, associating in the present. He is linked not only to the creatures around us but to those no longer living – and to those that existed before life began. In this final chapter the diversity of organisms, extinct and living, is portrayed against the background of the evolution of the earth itself.

Acknowledgments to Scientific Societies and Individual Reviewers

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